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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

AN EVALUATION OF THE PHOENIX EXPERIENCE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

by

CHRISTOPHER BRIAN WILLIAMS

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
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IN

COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

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FALL 1987

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled AN EVALUATION OF THE PHOENIX EXPERIENCE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM submitted by Christopher B. Williams in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of MASTER OF EDUCATION in COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY.

.....

Supervisor

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.....

Dated: October 5, 1987

ABSTRACT

This investigation was undertaken in order to fulfil an apparent need for information concerning the influence of an adolescent development course entitled the "Phoenix Experience Educational Program" on high school students. A single questionnaire containing four measures (two analyzed in this study) were administered to both experimental and control groups as pre- and post-test measures. The students were measured in relation to locus of control orientation (Rotter I/E Locus of Control scale) and level of irrational beliefs (AII). Data were analyzed by using a two way analysis of variance, repeated measures, to assess the relationships between the program (independant variable) and the two measures (dependant variables). Descriptive data were also collected from students and teachers involved in the program concerning the program and program format. A total of 314 high school students participated in this research project, the majority being either 16 or 17 years of age (81%) and in grade 11 (80%).

The findings of this study demonstrate clearly that students who participated in the Phoenix Experience Educational Program experienced significant changes in locus of control orientation (more internal) and measure of irrational belief (more rational). These alterations appeared to be due to the Phoenix Experience Educational Program undertaken during the study period. Descriptive

data were generally positive in nature. Both students and teachers indicated that the program would be improved by increased classroom discussion and restructuring of videotapes.

Results of this study suggest the need for educators and psychologists to continue to evaluate adolescent development programs and resources on an ongoing basis. These evaluations should include both process and outcomes.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
1.	INTRODUCTION	1
2.	THEORY AND RELATED LITERATURE	7
	Adolescent Development Programs	7
	Locus of Control	14
	Rationality	23
	Concluding Comments	29
	Hypothesis	31
3.	METHODOLOGY	32
	Instruments	32
	Background	32
	Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale	32
	Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory	34
	Sample	35
	Sample Procedures	36
	Compilation of Data	38
	Statistical Treatment	40
4.	RESULTS	41
	Hypothesis 1	41
	Hypothesis 2	43
	Descriptive Data	46
	Summary of Conclusions	51

CHAPTER PAGE

5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND SUMMARY 52

Discussion 52

Implications for Further Research..... 57

Summary 58

REFERENCES 60

APPENDIX A 69

APPENDIX B 91

APPENDIX C 103

APPENDIX D 105

APPENDIX E 107

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	DESCRIPTION	PAGE
I	Total Sample: Number Used in Analysis ...	37
II	Sex of Students	38
III	Distribution of Sample Groups by Age	38
IV	Distribution of Sample Groups by Grade ...	39
V	Locus of Control mean scores for the experimental and control groups on pre- and post-tests	40
VI	A two way analysis of variance with repeated measures for Rotter I/E scores on pre- and post-tests.....	41
VII	Irrational Ideas mean scores for the experimental and control groups on pre- and post-tests	43
VIII	A two way analysis of variance with repeated measures for the AII scores on pre- and post-tests	44
IX	Student Questionnaire Results	46
X	Most Valuable Aspects of the Program	47
XI	Least Valuable Aspects of the Program	47
XII	Improve the Course with More	48
XIII	Improve the Course with Less.....	48

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE		PAGE
1	Graph Showing a Comparison of the Pre- and Post-test mean I/E Scores for the Experimental and Control Groups	42
2	Graph Showing a Comparison of the Pre- and Post-test mean AII Scores for the Experimental and Control Groups	45

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The modern high school continues to be primarily concerned with the intellectual development of adolescents. Adolescent development occurs in a time of accelerated movement physiologically, cognitively, socially and emotionally. Within the high school one finds all the energy and corresponding confusion of adolescent growth and development. Competing perspectives variously define adolescence as a period of physical development, as a specific span of years, as a stage of psychosocial growth, as a sociocultural phenomenom, and as a way of life or state of mind (D.Rogers,1977). The adolescent must shed patterns of dependency and formulate new patterns of living for the adjustment to adulthood (Onyehalu, 1981). Adolescence is a "process rather than a period, a process of achieving attitudes and beliefs for effective participation in society" (C.Rogers, 1969). Adolescent development can thus be described in its simplest form as a "differentiation of the self from the non-self through societal interactions" (Hayes, 1982).

There is a strong and still growing recognition of the significant interaction between affective and cognitive components in the learning process that was furthered by the work of Coopersmith (1959). Following from this recognition a number of affective education programs and resources for

high school students such as The Centering Book (Hendricks & Wills, 1975), 100 Ways to Enhance Self-Concept in the Classroom (Canfield & Wells, 1976), Human Development Program-Innerchange (Bessell & Palomares,1970), and Life Skills for Adolescents (Dept. of Manpower and Immigration, 1973) have been developed to meet the need of affective education both in the classroom and in special programs. Developmental guidance programs are aimed at all students to enable them to develop skills that will generalize to everyday life role situations (Swindlehurst, 1978).

High school is the main setting in which adolescents spend time away from home. Schools must be concerned with both social and cognitive development of students. A developmental program attempts to reconcile the uniqueness of the individual with society and cultural demands (Dinkmeyer, 1968). Programs that can bring together intellectual learning about oneself and others are an important and desirable model (Sprinthall & Collins,1984). Adolescence can be termed a bridge between childhood and adulthood. The life skills required for an adolescent are those needed to cope with a society that exhibits an accelerated rate of change, a quickened pace of life and increasing transience. The crucial task of education in a changing world is to prepare emerging adults to deal imaginatively and experimentally with their total environment (Dept. of Manpower & Immigration, 1973).

Adolescence is the age of progressively solidifying one's identity and requires an assessment of one's abilities and a vision of how these abilities can be synthesized within society (Mitchell, 1986). The first and last problem for an individual is to integrate within and be accepted by society. Perls (1975) indicated that maturation is a continuous growth process in which environmental support is transformed into self-support. "I'm a high school student" often serves to identify and locate adolescents in their relevant life framework (Newman & Newman, 1986). Given the seemingly central developmental task of adolescence, that of self-definition (Erikson, 1950), we can now turn our attention to a program designed to facilitate healthy adolescent development.

In Alberta, The Secondary Education Review Policy Statement (June, 1985) mandated the Career and Life Management program as a core subject for high school students by September 1989. The policy statement description of the program is as follows:

> career, personal finance, and life management skills, including personal development, interpersonal relations, effective learning skills, career planning, skills and attitudes required in the workplace, preventative alcohol and drug education, and other relevant societal issues.
>
> (Alberta Education, 1987)

This course will slightly overlap with a few current high school courses, but it is an attempt at a universal

developmental guidance program for all Alberta high school students. Two problems this program overcomes have been where to put adolescent development programs within the context of provincial curriculum and that courses with a high affective component were optional. Given this current perspective, it is necessary to evaluate possible resources to be considered for use in such a program whether they be print materials, audiovisual materials, or miniprograms that could fit within the larger context of a course.

All too often courses are implemented, resources found, and curriculum developed with little or no formal follow-up on the affect. The formal evaluation of a course is often only done through objective testing of the course to determine whether or not students have learned the content. In the case of programs designed to facilitate adolescent development other measures must be used.

Given the transitional behaviors expected from adolescents as they move to adulthood, it is desirable to evaluate characteristics and attributes that contribute to an individual's full and healthy participation in society. Two such measures that could be used for an outcome evaluation are locus of control orientation and level of irrational ideas. As it is desirable to measure programs in their infancy, before they become institutionalized, the Phoenix Experience Educational Program was chosen as it was in the piloting stage. The other benefit of evaluating this

program is that the twenty to thirty hour time period for the program allows it to be placed within the context of longer courses or programs.

The Problem Under Investigation

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of The Phoenix Seminar Educational Program on high school students as it relates to locus of control orientation and level of irrational ideas. The study proposes to assess changes in adolescents after they have experienced the entire program. An additional purpose is to gather data from both teachers and students relating to their perceptions of the entire program and the program format.

The Phoenix Seminar Educational Program was developed by Brian Tracy as an adolescent development program and to a large extent was based on his adult motivational seminars. The program consists of twenty lessons, each with clearly stated objectives, twenty minute video tape, and accompanying print material. The print material for each lesson includes a cover page (lesson title, objective, and introduction), one or two pages for student notes on the video, and two to six pages of individual, small group, and classroom activites (Appendix A: lessons 1, 9, & 16). The teacher and student packages are identical, although some comments are directions for the teacher. The various foci of the program include: motivation, success and

failure, self-concept, attitudes, values, personal responsibility, goal setting, problem solving, communication skills, and relationships. The program is currently in its infancy and at this point in time there is no accompanying literature.

The Purpose of this Study

Stated more explicitly, this study was an attempt to answer the following questions:

(1) What are the effects of the Phoenix Experience Educational Program on high school students' locus of control orientation?

(2) What are the effects of the Phoenix Experience Educational Program on high school students' level of irrational ideas?

(3) What are the perceptions of students and teachers regarding the Phoenix Experience Educational Program and program format?

Chaper 2

Theory and Related Literature

Introduction

In order to answer the first question posed in the introduction of this thesis two relationships will be discussed. The first concerns human (and in particular adolescent) development and behavior related to the construct of locus of control from the work of Rotter. The second concerns human behavior and development related to levels of rationality from the work of Ellis. Before looking at these relationships a brief overview of four adolescent programs will be presented. To take into account the many relationships among the variables the relevant literature will be discussed under the following subheadings: Adolescent development programs, locus of control, and rationality.

Adolescent Development Programs

A number of writers have outlined the skills and development needed by an adolescent to move into adulthood as a fully functioning and positive member of society. Schinke and Gilchrist (1984) argue that society must deliberately teach the skills adolescents need in order to lead healthy and prosperous lives.

> Life skills counseling equips adolescents to handle current problems, anticipate and prevent future ones, and advance their mental health, social functioning, economic welfare, and physical well-being. (p.13)

They outline extensively the six components of their model: information, problem solving, self-instruction, coping, communication and support systems and feel these strategies are mutually advantageous to adolescent's friends, families and communities.

The Life Skills Training Program for Adolescents (Department of Manpower and Immigration, 1973) outlines the major changes adolescents must undergo as they move from childish attitudes and behavior patterns to effective adult attitudes and behavior patterns. These include: accepting one's physique, accepting of sex roles, achieving emotional independence, acquiring intellectual skills and competencies for society, developing conscious values leading to socially responsible behavior and preparing for marriage and family life. Life skills are problem solving behaviors appropriately and responsibly used in the management of personal (self, family, leisure, community, job) affairs. The authors state that "true learning, accompanied by behavioral change, occurs when the learner has a clear understanding of his goals, a clear description of the new behavior, and an understanding of those conditions which rule the behavior acceptable."

As reported by Gerler Jr. (1986) and Crisci (1986), a successful program for preventing isolation and alienation in early adolescence has been developed by the Quest National Center. Their program, entitled 'Skills for

Living' reaches 600,000 students annually and was developed to foster skills for successful living and learning in adolescents. Besides so called basic skills a fourth 'R' is put forward as responsibility. The skills of responsibility include: appreciation of one's own talent and potential, setting of personal and intellectual goals, developing plans and fostering perseverance, postponing gratification, making informed decisions, accepting responsibility for one's behavior, making and adhering to commitments, interacting and communicating effectively and resolving conflicts.

The Career and Life Management curriculum (Alberta Education, 1987) outlines five major themes that include self-management, well-being, relationships, careers and the world of work, and independent living. The student will develop and apply decision making skills, identify rights and exercise responsibilities, employ and respond to personal and societal issues, identify sources of support, and respond proactively to choices and challenges. The main objectives of the course are as follows:

The student:

1. develops a positive self-concept and understanding of personal interests, values, aptitudes and abilities.
2. promotes independent personal management by developing the ability to make choices and to accept challenges that take into account significant others, values, responsibilities and resources.
3. develops the ability to apply effective interpersonal communication skills in order to function well in society.

4. develops an awareness of health as a resource for everyday living: that health maintenance contributes to achieving control over and improvement of personal well-being, to the process of realizing goals and satisfying needs, and to coping with changes in the environment.

5. develops an awareness of the relationship between personal economics, lifestyles, and occupational planning.

6. develops knowledge about career options and determines personal career strategies.

(Alberta Education, 1987)

The development program being assessed in this thesis (Tracy, 1987) has twenty lessons with the following objectives:

1. Students will list the six ingredients to success and explain their meaning to a classmate.

2. Students will explain to their dyad partner the meaning of the three mental laws : control; accident; cause and effect.

3. Students will demonstrate their understanding of how beliefs, values, expectations cause us to act in ways that influence our lives and relationships.

4. Students will explain the relationship between self-concept and potential for effectiveness.

5. Students will demonstrate knowledge of several facets of the relationship between the conscious and subconscious mind.

6. Students will examine aspects of positive self-image.

7. Students will learn the importance of personal responsibility; accepting it and avoiding blame and excuses.

8. Students will identify the connections between success and failure.

9. Students will be able to proceed through the "seven step goal setting exercise".

10. Students will identify at least one goal and begin the master skill process of achieving that goal.

11. Students will complete the action phase of goal setting and realize that obstacles to any goal make the goal more desirable.

12. Students will learn "logical solution" techniques to problems.

13. Students will clean their minds of stress and anxiety so they can concentrate their creative abilities on constructive solutions.

14. Students will learn the relationship between positive thinking and a happy, successful life. Students will apply positive thinking skills to their own lives.

15. Students will identify factors (outside their control) which influence their thinking and behavior.

16. Students will demonstrate understanding of good communication principles by analyzing the quality of communication in their own lives.

17. Students will become aware of how they treat others; students will choose one of the steps of popularity and practice it.

18. Students will recognize and use good listening skills.

19. Students will observe and describe the key elements in positive relationships and problems in unhealthy ones.

20. Students will see the connection between loving relationships (self, others, humanity) and achieving success in life.

As presented, the previous four programs have many skills, behaviors, attitudinal changes and processes that aim to aid the development of adolescents as they move to become effective adult members of society. When one considers the learning environments used, the range of possibilities are large. Life skills may be taught by teachers, social workers, psychologists, nurses, psychiatrists, and allied professionals (Schinke & Gilchrist, 1984), facilitator's or coaches (Department of Manpower and Immigration, 1973), or teachers (Tracy, 1987) (Alberta Education, 1987). The instruction process may be one to one, small groups, or classrooms of students. The

program lengths vary from one week to five months and the time periods range from meeting weekly for an hour to daily commitments lasting nearly all day.

Carl Rogers (1970) emphasized the benefits of experiential learning as being particularly significant to the student as it is discovery learning rather than just stored knowledge learning. The elements of experiential learning include (1970, p.509):

> 1. It has a quality of personal involvement. The whole person in both his feeling and cognitive aspects is involved in the learning event.
> 2. It is self-initiated. Even when the impetus or stimulus comes from the outside, the sense of discovery, of reaching out, of grasping and comprehending comes from within.
> 3. It is pervasive. It makes a difference in the behavior, attitudes, perhaps even the personality of the learner.
> 4. It is evaluated by the learner. "This is not quite what I want- doesn't go far enough -oh- this is better, this is what I want to know". The locus of evaluation may be said to reside definitely in the learner.
> 5. Its essence is meaning. When such learning takes place, the element of meaning to the learner is built into the whole experience.

Experiential learning occurs when the subject matter is perceived by the learner as relevant to the learner's purposes. Self-initiated learning occurs when it involves both feelings and cognition and allows the student to discover their own learning resources, to define their own problems, to decide on their own course of action, and to accept responsibility for their choices. Teaching young people to systematically address problems reflects the idea

that although the content of problems change, the learning process stays the same as adolescents become adults and face the daily exigencies of life (Meichenbaum, 1978).

All four programs stress the relevance of the curriculum (skills) to the learner's life purposes and aim for the kind of experiential learning Roger's advocates. An example is the CALM curriculum which states:

> CALM is designed to encourage students to become actively involved with the curriculum objectives. The ideal instructional process will have the students participating in learning experiences, co-operating and interacting with fellow students, and communicating with the teacher on an ongoing basis. The course should be relevant to all students as they address issues that are personally relevant.
>
> (Alberta Education, 1987)

As outlined by the above four programs, it is possible to prescribe methods and skills needed to facilitate the healthy development of adolescents into adults. Recurring themes throughout the four programs include self-responsibility, problem solving behaviors leading to informed decision making, increased mental and physical health, and better interpersonal communication skills.

The Phoenix Experience Educational Program was being implememted on a pilot basis in a number of classrooms. Owing to its newness and lack of research an initial assessment was undertaken. The locus of control orientation and level of irrational ideas were selected as measures that reflect attributes and characteristics that

lead to an individual's full and healthy participation in society, an implicit goal of the course. Initial assessments of programs in the piloting stage allow for program revision, generate possible further areas to study, and provide evidence of possible affects..

Locus of Control

Research literature concerning human development leaves little doubt as to the major role played by perceived control. Students enrolled in an adolescent development program may become involved in the learning process to the degree that they expect success. The perceived impact students have regarding their social interactions may influence their level of participation. As individuals attempt to ascribe causality and control to their own and others' beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors, they discover factors that reflect varied situationalresponses.

Rotter (1966) reported the theoretical and practical implications of the individual's expectancy for control of events and reinforcements. He proposed that belief in external control of reinforcements is related to behavior significantly different from behavior accompanying belief in internal control of reinforcement. Rotter (1954) had earlier identified the locus of control construct as being an integral part of social learning theory. The locus of control construct denotes the degree to which individuals

view environmental reinforcers as being under their personal control.

Rotter (1966) stated:

> The effects of reinforcement of preceding behavior depends in part on whether the person perceives the reward as contingent on his own behavior or independent of it. Acquisition and performance differ in situations perceived as determined by skill versus chance. Persons may also differ in generalizing expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement.

In social learning theory terms, perceived control is referred to as a generalized expectancy of internal control of reinforcement. The generalized expectancy of internal control refers to the perception of events, positive or negative, as being a consequence of one's own behavior and thereby possibly under personal control. On the other hand, the generalized expectancy of external control refers to the perception of events, positive or negative, as being unrelated to one's own actions and therefore beyond personal control (Lefourt, 1976, 1982, Rotter, 1966, Stipek & Weinz, 1981). The locus of control construct deals with a person as they view themself with the things that befall them, and the meaning that they make of those interactions between their self and their world.

The internal/external locus of control construct is hypothesized as a bipolar continuum with a range from the highly internally controlled through to highly externally controlled individual. From his construct Rotter developed

an instrument to measure a person's "internal-external" orientation using a 29 item forced choice scale. The items deal exclusively with the subject's belief about the nature of the world, not necessarily how the world is. This scale was designed to measure individual differences in generalized expectancy for internal-external control.

The locus of control construct is noteworthy due to a large number of research experiments and studies that have evolved from Rotter's scale. There have been a number of literature reviews of the locus of control orientation and its relationship with patterns of human behavior (Rotter, 1966, Goss & Morosko, 1970, Joe, 1971, Lefourt, 1966, 1972, 1976, 1982). The construct itself has come under debate about its unidimensionality (Marsh & Richards, 1984), and there is general agreement about the 'positive' nature of internals and the 'negative' nature of externals. These issues will now be addressed.

Rotter (1966) summarized his research by describing the internal compared to the external as more likely to:

(1) be alert to the aspects of the environment which provide useful information for future behavior.
(2) take steps to improve his environmental conditions.
(3) place greater value on skill or achievement reinforcements and be generally more concerned with his ability, particularly his failures.
(4) be resistant to subtle attempts to influence him.

People who view reinforcements as contingent on their own behavior (internal) are better adjusted than those who see

reinforcement as determined by powerful others, fate or chance. According to Rotter (1966), when an individual feels himself to be alienated and without any way to control his destiny he is said to have external locus of control; a less alienated person is said to have internal locus of control.

Goss and Morosko (1970) in their review of studies indicated that "individuals who believe they control their own reinforcements will exercise more control in directing their own lives than their externally orientated peers. Individuals with an internal control orientation are likely to learn and behave in ways which continue to facilitate personal control, thus leading to more adaptive behavior, while individuals with external control expectancies are more likely to engage in dysfunctional behavior"(p 190). Research with this construct has found (Joe, 1971) that those with external locus of control are generally more anxious, aggressive, dogmatic, depressed, suspicious, and afraid of failure. Internals, on the other hand, are more likely to control their impulses, attempt environmental and self control, resist manipulation and subtle pressure, exhibit socially desirable behavior, and appear well adjusted (p 215).

Lefourt (1982,1976,1972) in various reviews of the locus of control contstruct compared the internal and external orientation in terms of: resistance to influence,

cognitive activity, achievement-related behavior and coping behavior. Internals seem to be less susceptible to external pressure, more cognitively active, more able to delay gratification, and more measured in their responses to success and failure.

Other researchers have identified relationships between internal/external locus of control and various attitudes and behaviors. A person with an external orientation has: greater feelings of anxiety and tension (Phares, 1973); low degree of self-confidence (Lefourt, 1966), Joe, 1971); lower self-esteem (Messer, 1972, Roessler & Boone, 1971); and adjustment problems (Rotter, 1966, Joe, 1971, Lefourt, 1982). The sense of powerlessness that some individuals feel has been explained in terms of locus of control and the externally orientated individuals seem less able to regulate their experiences (Lefourt, 1976).

Persons with internal orientation have been found to be: more school achievement orientated (causality not clear) (Joe, 1971, Stipek & Weisz, 1981); more perceptive of their surroundings and more curious and efficient processors of information (Wolk and Ducette, 1973); and more task orientated (Phares, 1973). Brody & Benbow(1986) while studying extremely verbally or mathematically talented adolescents found a positive correlation between these students and internality, but no correlation with self-esteem or depression. Garner & Perrino (1985), while

studying high achievers, found a significant correlation between internal locus of control, achievement, and the Holland career code "Investigative'. This leads to an area of recent concern with researchers, that of career maturity and locus of control.

Breton (1972) found that adolescent vocational indecision and lack of career goals were associated with a future orientation of meagre opportunity, powerlessness, and dependence on other's for vocational decision making. Internality has been correlated with vocational maturity (Mcintyre, Drummond & Ryan 1978, Gable, Thompson & Glanstein, 1976, Loken, Boss, & Patsula, 1982, Gardner, Beatty, & Bigelow, 1981). Khan and Alvi (1983) found that higher career maturity scores were associated with higher self-esteem and more internal locus of control. If a program demonstrates changes in student locus of control, it may then be possible to increase career maturity in some adolescents. The above literature indicates considerable support for the desirability of an individual to have an internal control orientation and Rotter (1971) felt that the overwhelming number of critical problems faced by society points to a corresponding need of active, participating, internally orientated members.

However, there are a number of research reports that call into question the equation of internality with the words "positive and good" and externality with the works

"negative and bad". Likewise, there is a body of research that points to the possible multidimensionality of the construct locus of control.

Janzen, Beeken and Hratiuk (1973) found that "external" teachers supported student autonomy to a higher degree than "internal" teachers. Janzen and Beeken (1973) further indicated that the possibility of positive aspects of external locus of control include more liberal attitudes to relationships, more realistic appraisals of the nature of influence, greater tolerance of chaotic situations, and a less overt desire for power. Eby, Janzen, and Boersma (1976) called for increased investigation of the theoretical basis of internal-external locus of control.

McPhail (1979) called into question the theoretical basis of locus of control after finding no correlation with Ellis's irrational ideas. Both Battle and Rotter (1963) and Ducette and Wolk (1972) found among lower class black children external control was related to higher intelligence. Goss and Morosko (1970) found alcoholics to be significantly more internal. "Externals'" attitudes towards the environment were found not to conform to the traditional negative perspectives of low interpersonal trust, alienation and pessimism (Hersch & Scheibe, 1967). Lastly, Eby, (1980) found no relationship between internality and Kohlberg's stages of morality and advocated for increased morality as opposed to internal locus of

control.

When summarizing the wealth of research relating locus of control orientation and resistance to influence Lefourt (1982) stated that the overall evidence consistently suggests that externals are more attentive, positively responsive, and facilitory in their task performances by the presence of social cues. Internals seem to be more resistent to social influences and are distracted by social cues as they attempt to cope with various tasks. As the previous research points out, one must not assume that internal and external locus of control are opposites. As the construct is related to a continuum, one must realize that extreme measures of either internal or external locus of control may indicate severe maladjustment (Rotter, 1966). The dimension of external orientation needs to be more clearly outlined and greater clarification regarding external characteristics included.

Marsh and Richards (1984) reviewed twenty factor analytic studies of the Rotter I/E scale and reported the number of dimensions to be from two to six. The three most common factors were general luck (fate), political control and interpersonal control (social relations). They argued that the construct is not bipolar, but multidimensional. Levenson (1973) found support for her tri-dimensional scale that included "internal", "powerful other" and "chance". Lefourt (1976) stated that 'internals' know what they want

to do, externals who are controlled by 'others' do what you think, and externals who are controlled by 'fates' are indifferent to control. Decharms (1972) used the terms 'origins' to denote those individuals who controlled their own lives and 'pawns' to denote those individuals who are more likely to be controlled by others. He further postulated that pawns are more likely to be underachievers and to reject values of society.

As the perception of control is but a single expectency construct, the locus of control construct per se should not be expected to account for the lion's share of variance in most situations (Lefourt, 1982). According to Phares (1973), the concept of locus of control has proven to be useful in many different studies because it has consistently accounted for some of the variance and has been systematically related to patterns of human behavior. The literature generally supports the notion that individuals with an internal orientation seem to be assertive, independent, achieving and controlling whereas individuals with an external orientation tend to favor extrinsic controls and rewards (Curtis, 1983).

As an educator it is desirable to ascertain the qualities needed by students to lead healthy and productive lives. The relationships found between locus of control and achievement, independence, and vocational maturity indicate that for the majority of students a movement towards

internality would be of benefit. The research cited supports this notion.

It is feasible that the Phoenix Experience Educational Program encourages increased self-dependence, increased belief in one's own capabilities, and an increased behavioral repertoire of responses. It is therefore desirable to measure an aspect of this type of functioning with a locus of control instrument. This thesis will assess change in the internal/external locus of control construct as a result of participation in an adolescent development program.

Rationality

> There's nothing either good or bad
> but thinking makes it so.
> Shakespeare

The fundamental assumption underlying cognitive psychology is that psychopathology is the result of distorted, maladaptive, and irrational thoughts, beliefs, and attitudes (Zingle, 1987). Ellis (1962) contends that human emotions are largely the result of thoughts and beliefs that the individual holds regarding situations, others, and themselves. Learned misconceptions, faulty beliefs, or faulty ideas are crucial variables that must be modified or eliminated before psychotherapy can be successful (Raimy, 1975). From this fundamental premise

Ellis contends that individuals create their own feelings of stress by the kind of beliefs they hold and if irrational they may result in disturbed emotionality.

Ellis (1962, 1977, 1984) developed his A-B-C theory of human behavior that implies a theory of personality change and therefore personality itself. This theory holds that when an individual feels various emotional and behavioral consequences (C) after having experienced certain activating (A) events, they often consider A as being the cause of C. Ellis maintains that although A is a contributor to C, it does not really cause C. Usually, however, it is the individual's beliefs (B) about A that determine their responses. Individuals have many beliefs (B), cognitions, ideas or thoughts about the activating events (A) that serve as influencial mediators between A and C. Ellis (1979b) identifies B as more directly and importantly leading to "causes". Individuals bring their thoughts, goals, desires, and physiological propensities to bear on the activating events (A). Rational-emotive theory of change indicates that personality characteristics can almost always be significantly changed if accompanied by hard work and effort. Individuals virtually never experience A's without B,s and C's, but they also rarely experience B's and C's without A's (Ellis, 1984).

Ellis (1962) stated that man's:

> emotional or psychological disturbances are largely a result of his thinking illogically or irrationally, and that he can rid himself of most of his emotional or mental unhappiness, ineffectuality and disturbances if he learns to maximize his rational and minimize his irrational thinking (p. 36).

Human thinking and emotion are not separate or different, but are overlapping and integrally interrelated processes. One's thinking often becomes one's emotion. From his initial 10 to 12 irrational beliefs, Ellis (1977) now contends that there are three major musts:

> (1) I must (or should or ought) perform well and/or be approved by others. It is awful (or horrible or terrible) if I don't. I can't stand it. I am a pretty rotten person when I fail in this respect.
> (2) You must treat me considerately and fairly. It is horrible if you don't. When you fail me, you are a bad individual, and I can't bear you and your crummy behavior!
> (3) Conditions must be the way I want them to be, and it is terrible when they are not. I can't stand living in such an awful world. It is an utterly abominable place.
>
> (p. 11)

The goals of Rational-emotive therapy include self-interest, social interest, self-direction, tolerance, flexibility, scientific thinking, self acceptance, risk-taking, and non-utopianism.

The term rational in Rational-emotive theory refers to people:

> (1) setting up or choosing for themselves certain basic values, purposes, goals or ideals and then
> (2) using efficient, flexible, scientific, logico-empirical ways of attempting to achieve such values and goals and to avoid contradictory or self-defeating results.

Ellis (1984) defined irrational beliefs as those cognitions, ideas and philosophies that sabotage and prevent people from fulfilling their most important goals. These beliefs lead to "absolutistic" demands, commands, and necessities. RET assumes that no humans, whatever their antisocial or obnoxious behavior, are damnable nor subhuman. It particularly emphasizes the importance of will and choice in human affairs, even though it accepts the likelihood that some human behavior is particularly determined social, biological, and other forces (Bandura 1978, Ellis 1983).

Ellis suggested that adolescents often have irrational thoughts about what their particular environment expects of them. He contends (1962) that adolescents "musterbate" by saying to themselves "I must not fail socially", "I must be a good student", or "I must be like everyone else". Adolescents who form these kind of thoughts also often think that they are alone in their inability to meet these musts. Human emotions are often associated with or result from internalized sentences such as "this is good for me" or "this is bad for me". Rational-emotive therapy has always emphasized this self-talking, or self-indoctrinating aspect of human disturbance. The self talk or internalized sentence sets up the emotional state.

Although irrationality and emotional disturbances have distinct biological roots, individuals also have strong innate tendencies to act rationally, self-fulfillingly, and

self actualizingly (Ellis, 1979a). Virtually all human preferences, wishes, desires, and longings are appropriate even if not easily fulfillable; however, practically all absolutistic commands, demands, insistences, and musts, as well as the impositions on oneself and others that usually accompany them, are inappropriate and potentially self-sabatoging.

The main goal to emotional problem solving is to teach children and adolescents how to change inappropriate feelings to appropriate ones. As Waters (1982) indicates:

> Appropriate feelings are generated by rational beliefs, are an appropriate response to the situation, facilitate goal achievement, and are usually moderate as opposed to extreme reactions: whereas inappropriate feelings are generated by irrational belief, are an inappropriate response to the situation, impede goal achievement, and are usually extreme reactions. (P. 72)

In a previous paper, Waters (1981) listed the goals of rational-emotive therapy for younger children as being able to: correctly identify emotions, develop an emotional vocabulary, distinguish between helpful and hurtful feelings, differentiate between feelings and thoughts, tune into self-talk and feelings, and learn rational coping statements. A more complex set of goals may be pursued in addition to the ones listed above (Young, 1983) and include the following:

(1) Teach the ABC's.
(2) Dispute "awfulizing".
(3) Dispute "shoulds, oughts, and musts" (personal imperatives).

(4) Challenge "I-can't-stand-itis" (low frustration tolerance).
(5) Teach self-acceptance.
(6) Correct misperceptions of reality.

The kinds of irrational beliefs presented by Ellis have been closely related to many variables. Early researchers such as Conklin (1965) and Zingle (1965) have shown a relationship between underachievement and possession of irrational ideas. Hoxter (1967) reported significantly more irrational beliefs among problem behavior ten year olds. Taft (1968) found a strong association between irrational ideas and anxiety.

Brody (1979) found that 5th grade students who had received REE (Rational-emotive education) demonstrited significantly higher self-esteem, less test anxiety, and greater frustration tolerance. Barabasz (1979) reported a reduction of test anxiety among 148 students who were RET trained. This was reaffirmed by Barabasz and Barabasz (1981) when measuring lower skin conductive responses to test anxiety. Katz (1978) likewise reported decreased test anxiety for thirty students who had undertaken RET.

A recent study by Anderson (1985) found a clear relationship between perceived job related stress and possession of irrational beliefs in teachers. Meyer (1982) reported that RET significantly lowered anxiety among 8 to 13 year old learning dasabled students, but did not significantly increase self-esteem. Hamberger and Lohr

(1984) from several studies found support for Ellis' assumption that irrational beliefs through self verbalizations) are related to emotional upset and anxiety related behavior.

As an educator it is desirable to ascertain the qualities needed by students to lead healthy and productive lives. The relationships found between level of irrational belief, stress, anxiety, and self-esteem indicate that for the majority of students a movement towards higher rationality would be of benefit. The research cited supports this notion.

It is feasible that the Phoenix Experience Educational Program encourages decreased irrational thinking, less stress and anxiety, more positive beliefs about oneself and others, and in general, a cognitive restructuring of a person's (B) belief system. It is therefore desirable to measure an aspect of this type of functioning with an irrational ideas instrument. This thesis will assess change in the level of rationality as a result of participation in an adolescent development program.

Concluding Comments

Taking into consideration all the research reported in this chapter it would seem logical to conclude that:

(1) Adolescent development programs have similar and overlapping aims.

(2) There are strong and generally desirable relationships between internal locus of control orientation and aims of adolescent development programs.

(3) There are strong and generally desirable relationships between decreased levels of irrational beliefs and aims of adolescent development programs.

When comparing the theoretical positions of Rotter and Ellis, one finds that Ellis specified several commonly held beliefs and considered behavioral and emotional manifestations of these. On the other hand, Rotter dealt with a more generalized belief about the nature of the world and predicted concomitant behavior. Rotter did not attempt to predict emotional counterparts of this belief or behavior whereas Ellis did. This study then is assessing two different measures confirmed by McPhail (1969), who found no correlation between a measure of irrational ideas and locus of control.

As adolescent development programs move from assessment, pilot testing, process analysis of curricula development, to delivery of the program or course, it is imperative that assessment of outcomes be undertaken. The Phoenix Experience Educational Program, piloted in the spring of 1987, is ready for initial assessment. Thus the purpose of this study was to gain insight into some of the effects that such a program has on adolescents.

Stated more explicitly, the purpose of this study was to attempt to answer the following questions:

(1) What are the effects of the Phoenix Experience Educational Program on high school students' locus of control orientation?

(2) What are the effects of the Phoenix Experience Educational Program on high school students' level of irrational ideas?

(3) What are the perceptions of students and teachers regarding the Phoenix Experience Educatignal Program and program format?

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 Students who take the Phoenix Experience Educational Program will score significantly lower (movement to internality) on a measure of locus of control than will students who did not take the program.

Hypothesis 2 Students who take the Phoenix Experience Educational Program will score significantly lower (movement to rationality) on a measure of irrational beliefs than will students who did not take the program.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Instruments

The questionnaire used in this study is comprised of five parts. Three parts are relevant to this particular study (Appendix B). The background section at the beginning of the questionnaire asked questions concerning demographics. Part two is the Rotter Internal External Locus of Control Scale and part three is the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory. Each of these sections of the questionnaire are described below.

Background

Demographic information regarding sex, age, level of education, Father's occupation, Mother's occupation, and current living situation was requested. As several groups did not feel it was necessary to complete all demographic questions this study only uses the first three listed above.

Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale

Rotter's (1966) Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (I/E Scale) was designed to measure individual differences in generalized expectancy for internal-external control. It consists of 29 question pairs including 6 filler items presented in a forced-choice format. Each of the 29 items provides the respondent with a pair of

alternative statements which express a contrast in belief between internal and external control. The score that is received represents the total number of external items that are chosen. Scores range from 0 to 23 with 0 representing the more internal expectancy and 23 representing the more external.

The I/E Scale (1966) has been validated in widely varying research situations (Joe, 1971). Although a number of other scales have been developed to measure the I/E construct in various age categories (Battle & Rotter, 1963; Green, 1971; Wilson, Duke, & Nowicki, 1972; Nowicki & Strickland, 1973), according to Robinson and Shaver (1975, p.229) over 50 percent of the locus of control orientation studies employed the I/E Scale (1966) and it is "still to be recommended as a measure of generalized internal-external expectancy."

Item and factor analyses for the I/E Scale show a reasonably high internal consistency for an additive scale (0.69 to 0.73). Test-retest reliability, though not high, is consistent and deemed satisfactory (between 0.49 and 0.83) for varying samples and intervening time periods (Hersch & Schiebe, 1967).

The scale correlates at least satisfactorily with other methods used to assess the same variables such as Likert scale, questionnaire, interview assessments, and story completion technique ratings (Rotter, 1966).

Discriminant validity, as indicated by low correlations with such variables as intelligence (-0.11 to 0.01) and social desirability (-0.29 to -0.21) is reasonably high (Joe, 1971).

Evidence of construct validity of the I/E Scale is derived from predicted differences in behavior for individuals above and below the median of the scale and from correlations with behavioral data obtained from relevant studies (Hersch & Schiebe, 1967).

Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory by Davies & Zingle (1970)

The Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory (AII) is an abridged version of the II Inventory (Zingle, 1965) which was developed to assess the degree to which adolescents possess the irrational beliefs Ellis (1962) proposed as being prevalent in neurotic individuals (Zingle, 1987). The AII Inventory is a 60 item scale which is appropriate for use with both adolescents and adults. Responses are recorded on a 5 point Likert-type scale which ranges from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Statements have been worded such that strong agreement is sometimes scored high (5) and sometimes scored low (1). This procedure was used by the authors to eliminate the effect of response set.

Reliability was established by using both Kuder-Richardson split-half and test-retest procedures. Reliability estimates ranged from 0.74 to 0.78. Content

validity assumptions are supported by its derivation from the II Inventory, item selection by the concurrence of two judges familiar with Ellis' irrational beliefs, review by Ellis himself, and subjected to item analysis.

Evidence of construct validity is provided by several sources. For example, mental health patients and alcoholic patients received scores reflecting significantly ($p<.01$) more irrationality than did a normal group. Although seven other objective tests of irrational beliefs exist only Jones (1968) Irrational Beliefs Test comes close to the AII in terms of empirical evidence for its usefulness (Martin, Dolliver & Irwin, 1977). The choice of using the AII Inventory was made as one of the authors of the AII Inventory was more easily accessible to this researcher.

Sample

The subjects in this study consisted of 282 high school students from classrooms in Oregon (6), Alaska (2), and Alberta (4). The classes were in large urban centres, medium sized communities, and small rural towns. The teachers involved in the study volunteered to pilot the program in their classrooms or use their classes as a control group. Six classrooms functioned as experimental classes and piloted the Phoenix Experience Educational Program in the spring of 1987 while six classes functioned as control classes during the same time period. An attempt

was made to use experimental and control classrooms that were as similar as possible in terms of age, grade, and heterogeneity of students.

The program was taught in a variety of formats and courses depending on the particular schools time structure and program. The number of lessons given per week ranged from two to four and the length of class period ranged from thirty minutes to eighty minutes. All experimental classes placed the Phoenix program within the existing framework of other courses including: Personal Living Skills, Psychology, Sociology, Consumer Economics, Health and Wellness, and Social Skills. The control classes were placed in similar and when possible identical courses. The format of lesson instruction, video tape viewing and notetaking followed by individual or small group activities, discussion and homework were standard within traditional boundaries. All programs began in February of 1987 and all programs were completed by June of 1987.

Sample Procedures

The Phoenix Questionnaire (Appendix B) was administered to each high school class in the sample as pre- and post-test measures by the classroom teachers. The questionnaire was administered in February before the program commenced and again about four months later following completion of the program. The time period for the control classes was the same. Instructions were

provided to the teachers on administration of the questionnaire preceding the program. Shortly before completion of the program teachers were again provided with instructions on administration of questionnaires following the program and the procedures for the completion of the data collection (Appendix C).

Upon completion of the program students in the experimental classes were asked to complete an evaluation of the program (Appendix D) consisting of ten machine scored questions and four open-ended questions asking for a written response in addition to the questionnaire. These ten questions were selected as they asked for responses to some of the most salient features of the course. These features included: effort, enthusiasm, relation to self experience, discussion, difficulty, assignments, and videotapes. The subjective questions asked for written responses concerning the most and least valuable aspects of the course and improvement of the course through more and less ....

Teachers were asked to evaluate the program by written responses to five questions relating to the program and program format (Appendix E). The five questions included the four open-ended questions students received as well as a question concerning the method used to administer the course.

Compilation of Data

Once the questionnaires were returned they were checked, coded, and the data entered into one file. The data were checked for completeness through an MTS programme (Osiris) which compared pre- and post-test file data for individual students. Cases missing relevant measures such as pre- or post-tests were edited out. It was expected that a number of subjects would be away on pre- and post-testing days, drop the course after the pre-test measures were completed, and enter the course after the pre-test measures were completed. Approximately 20% of both the experimental and control sample were not used in data analysis. A total of 141 experimental student files and 113 control student files were found to be complete and then scored. The data analyzed in this study included data from a combined sample of 254. All 141 experimental subjects met the criteria for completing the entire Phoenix Experience Educational Program.

Table I

Total Sample: Number Used in Data Analysis

Sample Group		Number used in Data Analysis
Experimental	162	141
Control	142	113
Total	304	254

Of the 254 subjects chosen for the analysis 50% (n=127) were males and 50% (n=127) were females as shown in Table II.

Table II

Sex of Students

	Experimental Group	Control Group	Total
Male	63 (45%)	64 (57%)	127 (50%)
Female	78 (55%)	49 (43%)	127 (50%)

The distribution of sample groups by age and grade are shown in Tables III and IV.

Table III

Distribution of Sample by Age

Years	Experimental Group	Control Group	Total
14	12	1	13
15	8	1	9
16	80	49	129
17	34	47	81
18	5	13	18
19+	2	2	4
Total	141	113	254

Table IV

Distribution of Sample Groups by Grade

Grade	Experimental Group	Control Group	Total
9	22	0	22
10	1	5	6
11	114	90	204
12	2	17	19
missing	2	1	3
Total	141	113	254

Statistical Treatment

To prepare the data for statistical treatment, responses to the questionnaire were transformed to computer readable format. In order to obtain the total scores for the Rotter I/E Scale and AII Inventory an MTS programme was used to generate total test scores for both Inventories. To check the accuracy of this program several tests were hand scored and the results compared. Data were then analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Program (SPSSx, 1983) for a two way analysis of variance, repeated measures. Tests of significance were applied to the analyses. Permission for use of the tests was obtained where necessary.

Chapter 4

Results

Data for the two hypotheses were subjected to a two way analysis of variance for repeated measures. Two separate analyses were conducted. To assist the reader in interpreting the results each hypothesis is restated and is followed by relevant statistical findings and appropriate conclusion. The descriptive data gathered regarding students' and teachers' perceptions of the program and program format are then presented.

Hypothesis 1

Students who take the Phoenix Experience Educational Program (experimental) will score significantly lower (movement to internality) on a measure of locus of control than will students (control) who do not take the program.

The mean scores on the Rotter I/E scale for each of the two groups on pre- and post-test measures are provided in table V.

Table V

Locus of Control mean scores for the experimental and control groups on pre- and post-tests

	Pre	Post
Experimental	9.567	7.901
Control	10.381	9.850

Results of the two way analysis of variance using repeated measures are presented in table VI.

Table VI
A two way analysis of variance with repeated measures for Rotter I/E scores on pre- and post-tests

Source	DF	MS	F	P
Between				
Groups	1	239.274	10.460	.001
Error	252	22.875		
Within				
Time	1	151.491	21.793	.001
Group x Time	1	40.430	5.816	.017
Error	252	6.951		

It is clear from the analysis of variance results using the Rotter I/E scale that:

1.) there were significant differences between experimental and control groups ($F=10.460$ $p<.001$) on this measure.

2.) there were significant differences within the pre/post time period ($F=21.793$ $p<.001$) on this measure.

3.) there were significant differences on the group x time interaction effect ($F=5.815$ $p<.017$) on this measure.

An analysis of the group means on the Rotter I/E scale (Table V) clearly indicates that the within group variance was accounted for primarily by the effect of the significant difference between the pre- and post-test means of the experimental group. The experimental group moved

significantly ($p<.017$) in the direction of internality compared to the control group. Students who took the Phoenix Experience Educational Program became significantly more internal than students who did not take the program. Figure 1 illustrates the comparison.

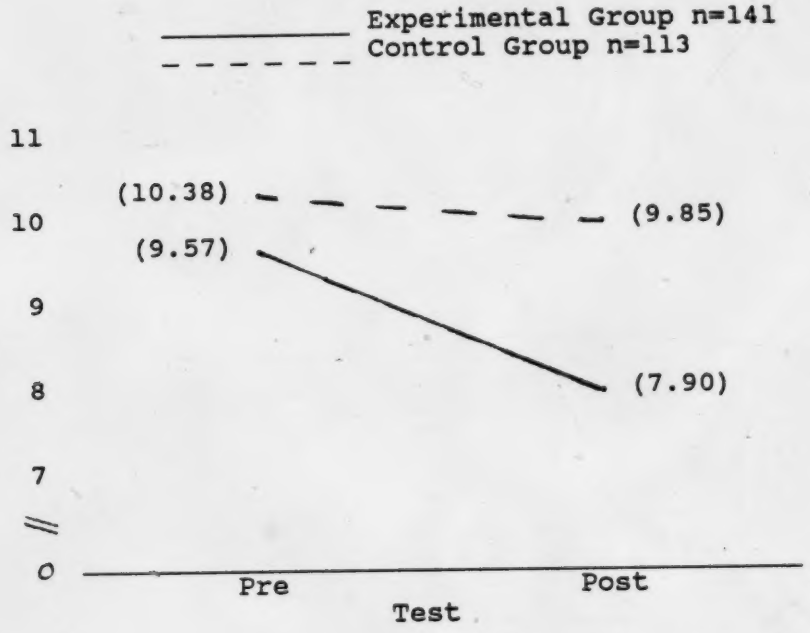

Figure 1

Graph Showing a Comparison of the Pre- and Post-test mean I/E Scores for the Experimental and Control Groups

Hypothesis 2

Students who take the Phoenix Experience Educational Program (experimental) will score significantly lower (movement to rationality) on a measure of irrational beliefs than will students (control) who do not take the program.

The mean scores on the Zingle AII scale for each of the two groups on pre- and post-test measures are provided in table VII.

Table VII

Irrational Ideas mean scores for the experimental and control groups on pre- and post-tests

	Pre	Post
Experimental	172.071	169.326
Control	176.956	178.965

Results of the two way analysis of variance using repeated measures are presented in table VIII.

Table VIII

A two way analysis of variance with repeated measures for AII scores on pre- and post-tests

Source	DF	MS	F	P
Between				
Groups	1	6617.864	10.650	.001
Error	252	621.420		
Within				
Time	1	23.523	.189	.664
Group x Time	1	705.694	5.666	.018
Error	252	124.544		

It is clear from the analysis of variance results using the AII scale that:

1.) there were significant differences between experimental and control groups ($F=10.650$ $p<.001$) on this measure.

2.) there were no significant differences within the pre/post time period ($F=.189$ $p<.664$) on this measure.

3.) there were significant differences on the group x time interaction effect ($F=5.666$ $p<.018$) on this measure.

An analysis of the group means on the AII scale (Table XIV) clearly indicates that the within group variance was accounted for by the effects of the significant difference between the pre- and post-test means of both the experimental and control group. The experimental group has moved significantly in the direction of rationality while the control group has risen in the direction of irrationality ($p<.018$) Students who took the Phoenix Experience Educational Program became significantly less irrational than students who did not take the program. Figure 2 illustrates the comparison.

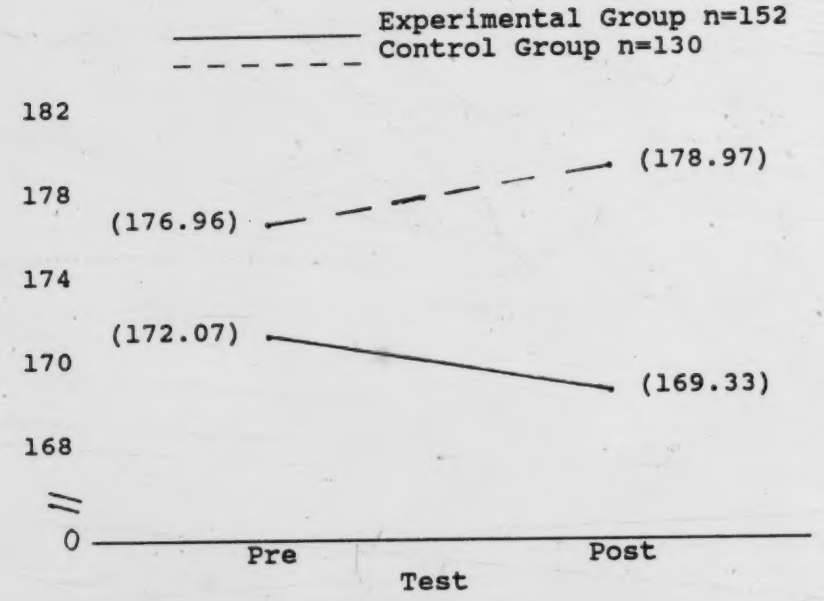

Figure 2

Graph Showing a Comparison of the Pre- and Post-test mean AII Scores for the Experimental and Control Groups

Descriptive Data

The results of the machine scored student questionnaires (N=148) are presented in table IX. Appendix D is a copy of the questionnaire.

Table IX

Student Questionnaire

		SD	D	N	SA	A	Med.
1.	I put more effort into this course than into most other courses.	20	35	36	48	9	3.03
2.	I developed enthusiasm about the course material.	15	24	37	55	17	3.45
3.	I was stimulated to discuss topics outside of class.	16	29	26	65	11	3.54
4.	I would recommend this course to other students.	16	15	19	57	41	3.92
5.	I tried to relate what I learned in this course to my own experience.	10	10	16	74	36	4.00
6.	A real strength of this course was the classroom discussion.	16	23	40	56	13	3.38
7.	The level of difficulty of the course material was appropriate.	6	12	31	85	14	3.79
8.	Assignments were challenging and worthwhile.	16	24	31	64	13	3.38
9.	Videotapes used in this course were interesting and stimulating.	23	37	29	42	16	2.97
10.	Videotapes used in this course were a great help to learning.	19	16	26	61	26	3.71

As can been seen in the previous table, items with a median score of more than 3.5 include 3,4,5,7,8, and 10. The items with the highest median, "I would recommend this course to other students" (3.92) and "I tried to relate what I learned in this course to my own experience" (4.00) seem to indicate that students were involved in the learning process. Although 87 students agreed the videotapes were a great help to learning, only 56 agreed they were interesting and stimulating.

The results of the open-ended questions asked of students are presented in table X to XIII. The responses were tabulated and categories created for the responses.

The frequency of response is listed from highest to lowest.

Table X

Most Valuable Aspects of the Program
(n=148)

Value label	Frequency	Percent
goal setting	46	25.1
self concept	26	14.2
no aspects	21	11.5
relationships	19	10.4
keys to success	13	7.1
positive thinking	11	6.0
tapes	9	4.9
class discussion	5	2.7
responsibility	5	2.7
teacher	4	2.2
homework	2	1.1
all aspects	2	1.1
communication	2	1.1
laws	2	.5
problem solving	2	.5
missing/other	16	8.7

Table XI

Least Valuable Aspects of the Program
(n=148)

Value label	Frequency	Percent
all valuable	32	17.5
none valuable	17	9.3
tapes	15	8.2
repetition	6	3.3
popularity	5	2.7
notetaking	5	2.7
several exercises	4	2.2
laws	4	2.2
topic choices	4	2.2
homework	3	1.6
lack prep material	3	1.6
daily assignments	3	1.6
proverbs	2	1.1
other/missing	80	43.7

Table XII

Improve the Course with More
(n=148)

Value label	Frequency	Percent
class discussion	61	33.3
int. activities	21	11.5
relevant topics	19	10.4
tape variety	10	5.5
add nothing	8	4.4
dyad partners	3	1.6
prep. material	2	1.1
goal setting	2	1.1
self concept	2	1.1
motivation	1	.5
other/missing	54	29.6

Table XIII

Improve the Course with Less
(n=148)

Value label	Frequency	Percent
tapes	60	32.8
take nothing	15	8.2
repetition	13	7.1
assignments	13	7.1
notetaking	11	6.0
homework	8	4.4
irrelevant topics	7	3.8
story telling	2	1.1
laws	2	1.1
other/missing	52	28.5

The results of the open-ended questions asked of teachers are presented in the order they were asked. The

comments listed were the main ones. Appendix E is a copy of the course evaluation sheet sent to teachers.

1. Responses to the aspects teachers found most valuable included: the conciseness of the course; favorite lessons of the students included goal-setting, 20 idea method, brainstorming, unlocking your potential, achieving mental fitness, communication with others, and the purpose of life; the "I like myself" theme.

2. Responses to the aspects teachers found least valuable included: tapes (we all needed a break); the concept of having to associate with the right people; some words need explanation; hand gestures on the tape distract from the content; subconscious mind concept difficult to understand; and students could not identify with some of the material.

3. Responses indicating how to improve the course included: improvement of presentation on tape by having a variety of speakers, setting, etc.; more areas of reference and identification with student life (relevance); more direct examples of theory with practical applications; and more emphasis that experience is a good teacher.

4. Responses indicating how to improve the course included: less lectures and more activities; lessen the length of the course; and less tapes of similar presentation.

Summary of Conclusions

As the two hypotheses were confirmed one can conclude:

1.) Students who took the Phoenix Experience Educational Program scored significantly lower (towards internality) on a measure of locus of control than did students who did not take the program.

2.) Students who took the Phoenix Experience Educational Program scored significantly lower (towards rationality) on a measure of irrational beliefs than did students who did not take the program.

The descriptive data demonstrate a fairly high level of involvement from the students. The main area of reconsideration relates to the student and teacher perceptions of the tapes and the highly similar presentation format on them. Students also requested more discussion.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND SUMMARRY

Discussion

The purpose of this study was twofold. The first part was to investigate the relationship between participating in the Phoenix Experience Educational Program and both locus of control orientation and level of irrational belief of high school students. As was hypothesized, students who participated in the program scored significantly lower (toward internality) on a measure of locus of control orientation than did students who did not participate in the program. As was also hypothesized, students who participated in the program scored significantly lower (towards rationality) on a measure of irrational beliefs than did students who did not participate in the program. As the post-testing was done immediately upon completion of the program, the data represents immediate outcomes only.

The second purpose was to gather descriptive data from both teachers and students concerning the Phoenix Experience Educational Program and program format.

Although the experimental and control groups were assumed to be derived from the same general population, it was evident from disparity on the pre-test means that better selection of control groups could be made. As it was not possible to match courses that the Phoenix Experience Educational Program was used in, the perceptions of students in the experimental classrooms may have been different at

the outset. This does not negate, however, the significant movement of experimental classes in the direction hypothesized.

An even more powerful example is the consistency of movement when one examines individual experimental classes and their corresponding control classes. The pre- and post-test means for the Rotter I/E Locus of Control Scale and the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory are presented in Table XIV. Although not statistically significant, the overall trend is readily apparent. All six experimental classes experienced a movement towards internality (lower mean scores) and five experimental classes experienced a movement towards rationality (lower mean scores). The Phoenix Experience Educational Program shows a strong indication to have an effect on students regardless of the teacher, course it was used in, and time structure.

It has been shown that teachers can and do influence student perceptions about themselves and the world around them. Some of the adolescent development programs described in this study (Life Skills, Innerchange, Quest, Calm) have a variety of methods for training individuals involved in program delivery. This include courses, in-services, workshops, and print resources. One might question whether or not the effect of the Phoenix Experience Educational Program might be enhanced by providing teachers with an instructor training program. Also, if the program is to

operate within a school context, then courses to place the program into and time frames that are most useful will only be found through experience and analysis.

Table XIV

Locus of Control and Irrational Ideas mean scores for the experimental and control groups on pre-post tests by classroom

	Locus of Control		Irrational Ideas	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Experimental 1	9.3	7.4	167.0	161.5
Control 1	10.2	8.5	170.7	173.6
Experimental 2	8.6	6.8	166.9	164.7
Control 2	12.7	11.2	177.3	180.7
Experimental 3	9.4	7.0	168.6	166.7
Control 3	10.3	9.9	170.2	169.9
Experimental 4	10.2	9.0	180.1	170.9
Control 4	10.2	10.1	185.1	182.7
Experimental 5	9.1	8.4	175.0	178.2
Control 5	7.8	8.4	177.7	190.0
Experimental 6	11.0	9.3	178.6	175.9
Control 6	11.3	11.2	182.3	178.8

The general evidence in relation to Ellis' ABC theory

of personality points out that irrational beliefs lead to negative emotions and disturbances, whereas rational beliefs lead to positive emotions and lack of disturbances. Phadke (1982) indicates that individuals must be taught to debate and discriminate the rational from the irrational. An individual's beliefs, both in their environment and in themself, are all occurring at point B, our representation of our reality.

Developmental theorists have long recognized that inner speech guides behavior (Luria, 1961). When irrational, such disabling self-talk needs to be identified, rationally evaluated, and replaced with internal dialogue that facilitates active adaptive coping (Ellis & Harper, 1975). Adolescents can and do learn rational coping strategies. Rational action results from the activites of appropriately socialized individuals (Kamen, 1985).

Gurin, Gurin and Morrison (1978) reviewed the literature regarding the dimensionality issue of the Rotter I/E Locus of Control scale and concluded that it measures a generalized expectancy, but that does not preclude subscales. The numerous studies relating this construct with achievement, self-determination, high frustration level, and assertiveness give strong indications of the important role locus of control orientation plays. The sense of powerlessness that some individuals feel has been explained in terms of locus of control (Lefourt, 1976). Adolescents

seem to adapt to society just like they learn any skill: through principles of learning (Bandura, 1980). If we allow students in high school the opportunity to learn conceptual strategies in everyday situations, then they will be better prepared for a variety of social tasks they will face.

Edwards and Kelley (1980) when studying high school students concluded:

> adaption is seen as having two components, competence and satisfaction. The competence component reflects the individual's instrumental performance or degree of ability, skill, or mastery in specific areas. The satisfaction component is determined by a sense of efficacy, gratification, or pleasure which is associated with current performance.

Alberta has moved in the direction of implementing developmental courses for students in all levels of public schooling that involve both cognitive and affective learning. There does not seem to be a great deal of research done on evaluating programs and resources with a high affective component. This study is one small step in a larger process that needs to be ongoing. Although the measurement of behavioral, social and emotional changes are more difficult than measuring content learning, that does not mean the attempt should not be made. This study has shown that the Phoenix Experience Educational program is a program that should be considered in the context of healthy adolescent development.

Implications for Further Research

Implications for further research work is readily apparent from the findings and limitations of this study. Program developers and implementers may tend to view developmental programs as a remedy for much that is wrong with our current educational system. It is, however, only one aspect of a large system. Changes in one part of the system bring changes in other parts.

Four potential areas of related research are seen as important:

1. Adolescent development as affected by the Phoenix Experience Educational Program should be compared with that produced by other developmental programs which stress similar aspects of personality change. These programs include those outlined in Chapter 2, those locally produced and implemented, and those that are available commercially.

2. This study's population consisted of students in small rural, town, and large urban settings with a variety of institutional restrictions. Worthwhile studies would look at the effectiveness of the program presented to either a similar sample or a more finely restricted sample coupled with a more uniform time structure. These studies could ascertain the most effective structure, more affected populations, and possibly the best method using the interaction of the two.

3. This study looked at locus of control orientation

and level of irrational ideas (data were also collected for measures of self-concept and self-esteem) over a four month period of time. It would be valuable to identify changes in peer relations, level of vocational maturity, decision making skills, levels of self-responsibility, levels of stress, and changes in school based achievement as well as the first four measures cited over longer periods of time. Through this type of research, particular strengths of the Phoenix Experience Educational Program might be identified.

4. As school districts already have or move into the use of adolescent development programs it is imperative that these programs be evaluated with both process orientated and outcome studies. The matching of need assessment with best resources available would lead to the healthy development of adolescents.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to assess the effects of the Phoenix Experience Educational Program on high school students locus of control orientation and level of irrational ideas. A subsidiary purpose was to investigate the response of both teachers and students to the program and program format.

Significant results were found in comparing the experimental and control groups on pre- and post-test measures. Analysis of variance of the Rotter I/E Locus of Control Scale (1966) and Adult Irrational Ideas inventory

(Davies & Zingle, 1970) indicated that the experimental group's score changed significantly ($p<.02$) on both measures in the direction hypothesized (increased internality, increased rationality). The program format could be reviewed based on the response of students to the videotapes. Likewise, instructors of the program should pay heed to the call for an increase in time allowed for class discussion as advocated by a significant number of students. These changes would likely enhance student involvement in experiential learning.

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APPENDIX A

THE SIX KEYS TO SUCCESS

LESSON ONE

OBJECTIVE

Students will list the six ingredients to success and explain their meaning to a classmate.

INTRODUCTION

Before watching tape, have students list characteristics of people who they perceive as successful.

Show tape; length _____ minutes.

STUDENT NOTES ON VIDEO

Lesson 1

SIX KEYS TO SUCCESS

Why are some people more successful than others?

Define success.

You can't hit a target you can't see.

Six Ingredients

1. Peace of mind
2. Health and energy
3. Loving relationships
4. Financial freedom
5. Worthy goals and ideals
6. Personal fulfillment

Success is not an accident; things happen for a reason.

List two ingredients of success.

1.

2.

Success is a choice--not an accident.

CLASS ACTIVITY

Lesson 1

SIX KEYS TO SUCCESS

1. List the six keys to success.

2. Form diads (2 people working together), and do the following activities. Share your work with your partner before going on to next activity.

   A. Draw a picture of peace of mind.

   B. Brainstorm (quickly say out loud) all the activities that a person can do to ensure health and energy.

   C. Select the two persons in your life with whom you have the best relationship, and tell why.

   D. Why is financial freedom important, and how much money will you need to make annually to achieve this ingredient.

   E. List two worthy goals and ideals that you have. Share with partner.

      My two worthy goals are:

   F. If you knew you could not fail, what would you do for the rest of your life? Write it down and tell partner.

      If I knew I could not fail, I would:

HOMEWORK

Lesson 1

SIX KEYS TO SUCCESS

A. Interview two successful people and determine what of the six ingredients they possess.

Interview #1 with: _____

HOMEWORK

Lesson 1

SIX KEYS TO SUCCESS

Interview #2 with: _____

HOMEWORK

Lesson 1

SIX KEYS TO SUCCESS

B. Rate in order of priority the six ingredients as they apply to where you are in your life at the present time.

_____ Peace of mind

_____ Health and energy

_____ Loving relationships

_____ Financial freedom

_____ Worthy goals and ideals

_____ Personal fulfillment

FIVE KEYS TO GOAL SETTING

LESSON NINE

OBJECTIVE

Students will have enough information to proceed through the "seven-step goal setting exercise."

INTRODUCTION

Begin some student mind sets by asking the following questions, allowing students to respond but making no criticism or confirmation of their responses.

- What is a goal?
- What have you ever been taught about goal setting?
- How many of you set goals?
- How many of you have a major purpose or mission in life?

Show tape; length approximately 20 minutes.

REVIEW

Brian Tracy includes a review at the end of the tape. The teacher might stop tape just prior to this and ask questions of the students, such as:

"What are the five keys to goal setting?"

Now play the remainder of the taped message.

STUDENT NOTES ON VIDEO Lesson 9

FIVE KEYS TO GOAL SETTING

Change is inevitable because

_____

_____

_____

People fear change because

_____

_____

_____

Goals allow us to control

_____

_____

_____

Areas of excellence: All of us have at least one area that allows us to achieve excellence.

Our responsibility is to identify_____

You will only lead a happy life to the _____

_____

_____

How to identify your areas of excellence:

Interest_____

Attention_____

Absorption_____

Acres of diamonds:

Moral of the story is_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

STUDENT NOTES ON VIDEO Lesson 9

FIVE KEYS TO GOAL SETTING

Opportunity comes dressed in_____
_____
and often times disguised as hardwork.

Need for balance:

You need:

Personal goals_____

Material goals_____

Academic goals_____

Interpersonal goals_____

Pathetic goals_____

Spiritual goals_____

Major definite purpose is_____
_____
_____

Your "mission" can be short or long term._____
_____
_____

Concentrate 100% on your central goal and_____
_____
_____

CLASS ACTIVITY

Lesson 9

FIVE KEYS TO GOAL SETTING

This is a teacher-led class discussion (students do not have a workbook page). Please remember to call on students who are slower to respond, as well as the verbal volunteers, and give everyone "think time."

Class discussion.

1. Why do people fear change?

   How does goal setting reduce this fear?

2. Why is it important to have a "mission?"

   Why not just have ten equal goals?

3. Think of something that you wanted very much for a long time and achieved it.

   Did it happen by accident?

   Why did you achieve it?

   Think of something you wanted but didn't achieve.

   Why? What happened? What was different?

   Think of something you want deeply right now.

   Do you think you will achieve it? Why?

CLASS ACTIVITY

Lesson 9

FIVE KEYS TO GOAL SETTING

Following class discussion, complete these activities:

A. List five things you do well:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

B. In a diad, share these things with your partner. Partners should find ways to confirm these talents in the other person.

NOTES

My partner today was_____

Who does these things well:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

CLASS ACTIVITY

Lesson 9

FIVE KEYS TO GOAL SETTING

Goal-setting exercises.

(Teacher should lead students through the questions, model and clarify before they complete the work.

1. What do you value most in life?

2. What are your most important goals in life right now?

3. What would you do with one million dollars?

4. What would you do if you only had six months to live?

CLASS ACTIVITY

Lesson 9

FIVE KEYS TO GOAL SETTING

5. What have you always wanted to do but were afraid to attempt?

6. What have you done in life that gave you a great deal of satisfaction, a feeling of importance?

7. What if you were guaranteed of success of any one thing?

HOMEWORK

Lesson 9

FIVE KEYS TO GOAL SETTING

List ten or more possible goals suggested or mentioned in the goal-setting assignment and rank them 1-2-3, etc. according to their importance to you.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

COMMUNICATING WITH OTHERS

LESSON SIXTEEN

OBJECTIVE

Students will demonstrate understanding of good communication principles by analyzing the quality of communication in their own lives.

INTRODUCTION

The most important single skill of life in society is the ability to communicate and interact positively and effectively with others. Good communicators are happier, healthier, and more successful at almost everything they do. You can become a better communicator by learning how and by practicing what you have learned.

In this video tape, we discuss the art of communicating as a skill that can be developed--the same as typing, driving a car, or playing tennis.

Show tape; length _____ minutes.

STUDENT NOTES ON VIDEO Lesson 16

COMMUNICATING WITH OTHERS

Four states of learning anything.

1. Unconscious _____ - ignorance.
2. _____ incompetence - awkward stage.
3. Conscious _____ - pride.
4. _____ competence - automatic.

Personality attributes of a good communicator.

Positive _____ ideal.

Positive self-_____.

How much you _____ yourself.

Destructive _____ lower self-_____.

Fear of _____ leads to being a _____ communicator.

Antidote to fear of _____ is to repeat **I**_____ **myself.**

Basic human needs of communicating.

1. *Physical needs:*

   - express and _____ idea;
   - better _____, longer _____.

2. *Ego needs:*

   - **I am** = personal identity.
     = true identity.

You only really **know** who you are when you communicate with and get feedback from others.